

# Nitrogen source and $p\text{CO}_2$ synergistically affect carbon allocation, growth and morphology of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi*: potential implications of ocean acidification for the carbon cycle

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## Abstract

Coccolithophores are unicellular phytoplankton that produce calcium carbonate coccoliths as an exoskeleton. *Emiliana huxleyi*, the most abundant coccolithophore in the world's ocean, plays a major role in the global carbon cycle by regulating the exchange of  $\text{CO}_2$  across the ocean-atmosphere interface through photosynthesis and calcium carbonate precipitation. As  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration is rising in the atmosphere, the ocean is acidifying and ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) concentration of future ocean water is expected to rise. The latter is attributed to increasing anthropogenic nitrogen (N) deposition, increasing rates of cyanobacterial  $\text{N}_2$  fixation due to warmer and more stratified oceans, and decreased rates of nitrification due to ocean acidification. Thus, future global climate change will cause oceanic phytoplankton to experience changes in multiple environmental parameters including  $\text{CO}_2$ , pH, temperature and nitrogen source. This study reports on the combined effect of elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  and increased  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) ratio ( $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NO}_3^-$ ) on *E. huxleyi*, maintained in continuous cultures for more than 200 generations under two  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels and two different N sources. Herein, we show that  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation under N-replete conditions depresses calcification at both low and high  $p\text{CO}_2$ , alters coccolith morphology, and increases primary production. We observed that N source and  $p\text{CO}_2$  synergistically drive growth rates, cell size, and the ratio of inorganic to organic carbon. These responses to N source suggest that, compared to increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  alone, a greater disruption of the organic carbon pump could be expected in response to the combined effect of increased  $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NO}_3^-$  ratio and  $\text{CO}_2$  level in the future acidified ocean. Additional experiments conducted under lower nutrient conditions are needed prior to extrapolating our findings to the global oceans. Nonetheless, our results emphasize the need to assess combined effects of multiple environmental parameters on phytoplankton biology to develop accurate predictions of phytoplankton responses to ocean acidification.

**Keywords:** calcification, carbon, global climate change, nitrogen, ocean acidification, phytoplankton

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## Introduction

The coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi* (Lohmann) Hay and Mohler originated approximately 270 000 years ago (Thierstein *et al.*, 1977), and despite its relatively young existence has colonized almost every photic zone of the modern world ocean, making it one of the most abundant, successful and ubiquitous species of marine phytoplankton. *E. huxleyi* is a unicellular phytoplankton species that produces intricate calcium carbonate platelets (coccoliths) as an exoskeleton, and in summer forms extensive blooms spanning wide oceanic areas at high latitudes. Most of the organic carbon deposition in

the deep sea has been shown to be carried by calcium carbonate (Armstrong *et al.*, 2002; Francois *et al.*, 2002) and coccolithophore calcium carbonate ballast has been estimated to account for up to 83% of the organic carbon flux to the seafloor (Zondervan *et al.*, 2001; Klaas & Archer, 2002). These features have contributed to the establishment of *E. huxleyi* as a major contributor to the global carbon cycle by regulating the exchange of  $\text{CO}_2$  across the ocean-atmosphere interface through photosynthesis and calcium carbonate precipitation (de Vargas *et al.*, 2007), and export of carbon to the deep ocean (Zondervan *et al.*, 2001; Klaas & Archer, 2002).

Present and future anthropogenic emissions of  $\text{CO}_2$  to the atmosphere are predicted to change physicochemical properties of the oceans. In addition, to increases in temperature and enhanced stratification

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brought about by climate change, increased partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (*p*CO<sub>2</sub>) in surface waters decreases pH and carbonate ion concentration ([CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>]), a phenomenon termed ocean acidification (Samiento *et al.*, 1998; Rost & Riebesell, 2004).

Recent studies indicate that the N cycle may respond strongly to changes in atmospheric *p*CO<sub>2</sub>, and that increasing *p*CO<sub>2</sub> may increase the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio in surface waters (Hutchins *et al.*, 2009; Wyatt *et al.*, 2010; Beman *et al.*, 2011). Four independent studies (Barcelos e Ramos *et al.*, 2007; Hutchins *et al.*, 2007; Levitan *et al.*, 2007; Kranz *et al.*, 2009) suggest that nitrogen gas (N<sub>2</sub>) fixation rates by *Trichodesmium* will increase by 35–65% by the end of the century due to increased atmospheric *p*CO<sub>2</sub>. The nitrifying bacterium *Nitrosococcus oceanus* has optimal growth at pH 8, but is inhibited at lower pH (Ward, 1987). Microbial nitrification rates were shown to decrease when pH was experimentally reduced at multiple locations in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans (Huesemann *et al.*, 2002; Beman *et al.*, 2011).

In ocean surface waters, inorganic N is encountered predominantly as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ions and is often considered one of the major limiting elements that restrict marine eukaryotic phytoplankton cellular and metabolic processes (Dugdale, 1967; Ryther & Dunstan, 1971). Surface-water NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations range widely, from the analytical detection limit (3–15 nM) (Holmes *et al.*, 1999) to about 50 μM, as a function of both space (e.g., proximity to land and river mouths) and time (e.g., upwelling events; phytoplankton community blooms and terminations). In contrast, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations vary from below the detection limit in most open ocean waters to about 2 μM in coastal waters and estuaries (Sharp, 1983; Sharp *et al.*, 2009). Although NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> can be found at very high concentrations in surface water in upwelling areas, in oligotrophic waters NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is often the dominant N source used by phytoplankton. In oligotrophic waters, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is supplied slowly to the euphotic zone while NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is recycled *in situ*. NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is also taken up as fast as it is produced, thereby, explaining the very low concentration generally found in the open ocean. In addition, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> requires less reducing power for cellular assimilation relative to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> assimilation, making this source of N less costly to metabolize (Mulholland & Lomas, 2008).

The primary effects of ocean acidification on marine organisms have been subject to intense research for the past decade (Kroeker *et al.*, 2010). However, studies of phytoplankton that focus on secondary effects of ocean acidification, whereby acidification directly impacts other environmental parameters and thus indirectly impacts phytoplankton biology are rare and have only recently been reported (Shi *et al.*, 2010). In future ocean water, phytoplankton species will experience change in

CO<sub>2</sub> and will also respond to concomitant change of other environmental parameters brought about by global climate change. In this report, we have investigated the combined effect of predicted increased *p*CO<sub>2</sub> and increased NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio in a calcifying coccolithophore *E. huxleyi*, revealing for the first time that N source and *p*CO<sub>2</sub> synergistically drive growth rates, cell size, and the ratio of inorganic to organic carbon.

## Materials and methods

### Phytoplankton species and culturing

Monospecific nutrient-replete cyclostat cultures of *E. huxleyi* (calcifying strain CCMP 371) from the Provasoli-Guillard CCMP (East Boothbay, ME, USA) were grown at 17 °C, using 0.2 μm filtered nutrient-poor aged seawater (Half Moon Bay water, 37° 29' 31" N, 122° 30' 02" W, collected October 18th and 24th 2008) with metals and vitamins added to achieve f/2 trace element concentrations (Guillard & Ryther, 1962). Phosphate was supplied as 14 μM of NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and N was supplied as either a mixture of 100 μM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl + 100 μM NaNO<sub>3</sub> (hereafter referred to as NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> treatment) or as 200 μM NaNO<sub>3</sub> (hereafter referred to as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> treatment). The *p*CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the cultures were controlled by aeration with gas mixtures of pure CO<sub>2</sub> and air (scrubbed free of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> by passage through a diluted phosphoric acid trap) to achieve CO<sub>2</sub> levels of 400 and 1000 ppm. The *p*CO<sub>2</sub> input to the culture was continuously monitored using an infra-red gas analyzer (LI-820, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). One *E. huxleyi* cyclostat culture for each condition was maintained under continuous flow in cylindrical 10 L borosilicate glass culture vessels. Despite great care to avoid bacterial contamination of the cultures, bacteria-free cultures could not be maintained during the length of the experiment. Nevertheless, the abundance of free and attached bacteria, counted at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the sampling program by DAPI direct counts, were similar across the four treatments and remained stable and proportional to the cell abundance of *E. huxleyi* (<5 × 10<sup>9</sup> cell L<sup>-1</sup>), suggesting that bacterial carbon and activity were negligible compared to those of *E. huxleyi*. A cell density of 500 cells μL<sup>-1</sup> (around 25% of the maximum yield under high-light conditions for the inflow nutrient levels) was the target density and the inflow medium flow rate was adjusted daily to maintain steady cell abundance. Cultures were continuously agitated by gentle stirring to ensure homogenous cell suspension and avoid possible light and nutrient gradient effects. Cultures were illuminated on a light/dark cycle of 16/8 h with cool-white fluorescent lamps (Vita-Lite 5500K, DUROTEST, Philadelphia, PA, USA) at photon flux densities (PFDs) of 450–500 μmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> to mimic the light regime and light intensity during summer at high latitude. PFD was measured in the center of each vessel containing *E. huxleyi* culture using a 4π Biospherical instruments (San Diego, CA, USA) probe, model QSP170B. This high-light level has previously been shown to ensure at least 50% of maximal photosynthetic activity without causing

photoinhibition in *E. huxleyi* (Nanninga & Tyrrell, 1996; Feng *et al.*, 2008).

### Sampling

Cultures were maintained under each condition for 214 to 291 generations (over 5 months of continuous culturing) before sampling every other day over a 2 to 3 weeks period, with steady-state re-established between each sampling date. The intense amount of labor required to maintain cyclostats of this kind prevented us from running each treatment in duplicate or triplicate as is commonly done for bottle experiments. Instead, since our growth rates were higher than  $0.7 \text{ day}^{-1}$  (more than one division per day, Table 1), by sampling every third day we ensured that the population of cells had been replaced completely between collection days. Therefore, this sampling strategy allowed for repeated sampling of the culture vessels to be taken and is routinely used for continuous culture (Sciandra *et al.*, 2003; Leonardos & Geider, 2005; Lefebvre *et al.*, 2010). Samples for calcification rate measurements were taken when the cultures were at steady state (cell density variation was 10% or less for three consecutive days), at 4 and 12 h into the light phase and 4 h into the dark phase. Samples for total particulate carbon (TPC), particulate organic carbon and nitrogen (POC, PON), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), were collected 14 h after the light onset. In addition, at each sampling, aliquots of each culture were taken for routine cell count, cell size, and determination of total alkalinity and nutrients.

### Aqueous chemistry

Samples for nutrient analysis were collected by filtration through a  $0.2 \mu\text{m}$  polycarbonate filter in 50 mL polycarbonate tubes rinsed twice with double distilled water and stored at  $-20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  until analysis. Nutrient concentrations were determined within 2 weeks of collection. The  $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$  and phosphate concentrations were measured according to Whitledge *et al.* (1981), using a Bran and Luebbe Autoanalyser II (Bran Luebbe, Inc. Buffalo Grove, IL, USA). The  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels

were determined according to Solorzano (1969), using a HP Diode Array spectrophotometer model 8452A.

Total alkalinity (TA) was measured by potentiometric titration (Bradshaw *et al.*, 1981) using a Metrohm Dosimat 765 (Metrohm, Herisau, Switzerland) and a high sensitivity combined electrode (Fisher # 13-642-237) and the end point determined from linear Gran plots (Gran, 1952). Changes of pH in the cultures were measured using the same instrument as above. The pH electrode was calibrated daily with standard NBS buffer solution (Fisher # SB105) and measured pH values were later converted to SW scale using the program *co2sys* (Lewis & Wallace, 1998). Salinity was determined just before TA measurements using a YSI salinometer (YSI Incorporated, Yellow Springs, OH, USA). For TA and pH measurements, seawater was equilibrated at  $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and water temperature was recorded continuously during the measurements to minimize inaccuracy associated with temperature fluctuation. Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) was measured according to Friederich *et al.* (2002) except that the  $\text{N}_2$  carrier gas was replaced by pure  $\text{O}_2$ . The TA and DIC values were standardized against a Dickson standard (batch #96, Marine Physical Laboratory, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, La Jolla, CA, USA). Concentrations of the carbonate species were calculated from temperature, salinity, DIC, TA,  $\text{PO}_4^{2-}$ , and silicate concentrations using the program *co2sys* (Lewis & Wallace, 1998), and using the equilibrium constants of Mehrbach *et al.* (1973) refitted by Dickson & Millero (1987).

### Physiologic and elemental analyses of the cultures

Culture cell size was determined by flow cytometry with a Cytobuoy type CYTOSIFT (Cytobuoy.Co, Woerden, the Netherlands). Samples for determination of TPC and POC were filtered on pre-combusted (4 h,  $450 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) GF/F-filters (Whatman, approximately  $0.7 \mu\text{m}$ ) and dried at  $55 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . Prior to analysis, the POC filters were washed with  $230 \mu\text{L}$  of 1 N HCl to remove inorganic carbon. The TPC and POC were measured on a Costech ECS 4010 CHNSO analyzer (Costech Analytical Technologies Inc., Valencia, CA, USA). Particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) was calculated as the difference between TPC and POC.

**Table 1** Parameters of the seawater carbonate system in *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures

Treatment	$\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$	$\text{HCO}_2 \text{ NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{HCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$
DIC ( $\mu\text{mol kgSW}^{-1}$ )	1862 (a) $\pm$ 14	1837 (a) $\pm$ 15	2112 (b) $\pm$ 8	1980 (c) $\pm$ 16
$\text{HCO}_3^-$ ( $\mu\text{mol kgSW}^{-1}$ )	1577 (a) $\pm$ 38	1574 (a) $\pm$ 7	1914 (b) $\pm$ 11	1769 (c) $\pm$ 23
$\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ( $\mu\text{mol kgSW}^{-1}$ )	285 (a) $\pm$ 20	231 (b) $\pm$ 8	186 (b) $\pm$ 6	190 (b) $\pm$ 8
$p\text{CO}_2$ ( $\mu\text{mol kgSW}^{-1}$ )	5.9 (a) $\pm$ 0.7	6.9 (a) $\pm$ 0.3	13 (b) $\pm$ 0.6	11 (b) $\pm$ 0.8
$p\text{CO}_2$ (ppm)	166 (a) $\pm$ 20	194 (a) $\pm$ 7	367 (b) $\pm$ 16	308 (b) $\pm$ 23
TA ( $\mu\text{mol kgSW}^{-1}$ )	2278 (a) $\pm$ 18	2190 (b) $\pm$ 16	2379 (c) $\pm$ 11	2258 (a,b) $\pm$ 11
pH (SW scale)	8.35 (a) $\pm$ 0.04	8.28 (a) $\pm$ 0.01	8.08 (b) $\pm$ 0.02	8.13 (b) $\pm$ 0.02
$\Omega$ calcite	6.8 (a) $\pm$ 0.5	5.7 (b) $\pm$ 0.2	4.5 (c) $\pm$ 0.2	4.6 (c) $\pm$ 0.2

Data are shown for the four cultures in each growing conditions. Low  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\text{LCO}_2$ ) and high  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\text{HCO}_2$ ) with  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  as N source. Samples were taken 14 h into the light period. Data are given as means  $\pm$  SE for at least four replicates taken every third day for each culture condition. Letters in parentheses indicate significant differences ( $P < 0.01$ ) among treatment types using analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey's *post hoc* test. DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon;  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , bicarbonate;  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ , carbonate;  $p\text{CO}_2$ , partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  in seawater; TA, total alkalinity;  $\Omega$ , calcite saturation state.

Calcification rates were determined using  $^{14}\text{C}$  according to Balch *et al.* (1992). Briefly, 30.6  $\mu\text{Ci H}^{14}\text{CO}_3$  was added to 50 mL of culture aliquoted in transparent flasks. All replicates were incubated for 30 min under the growing condition before stopping the reaction by addition of 0.1% mercuric chloride. Controls were spiked with 0.1% mercuric chloride before incubation. Samples were collected onto pre-combusted GF/F-filters, half of which were placed in scintillation vials with 6.5 mL Optiphase 'Hisafe' 3 scintillation cocktail (Perkin-Elmer, Inc., San Jose, CA, USA). The other half were treated with 250  $\mu\text{L}$  of 1 N HCl to remove inorganic carbon prior being placed in scintillation vials. Scintillation cocktail was added after 24 h. The  $^{14}\text{C}$  incorporation was measured with a 1414 Liquid Scintillation Counter (PerkinElmer, Inc.). Calcification rate was calculated with the difference of the nonacidified and acidified filter radioactivity. Calcification rates and primary production rates in the middle of the dark phase were negligible (0.02 pg C cell $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$   $\pm$  0.01 SE and 0.0050 pg C cell $^{-1}$  h $^{-1}$   $\pm$  0.0005 SE, respectively) and have not been represented on the figures.

The  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake rates were measured using  $^{15}\text{N}$  tracer techniques. From each culture, replicate 25 mL samples were aliquoted into clear 50 mL culture flasks. Additions of either  $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  or  $\text{K}^{15}\text{NO}_3$  (99 at.%  $^{15}\text{N}$ , Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc., Andover, MA, USA) were made to achieve an isotopic enrichment of 20 at.%  $^{15}\text{N}$ . In the  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -only treatment, 5  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$   $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$  was added resulting in isotopic enrichment >95 at.%  $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ . Incubations were performed over 1 h under culture growth conditions and were terminated by gentle vacuum filtration onto pre-combusted (450  $^\circ\text{C}$  for 4 h) 25 mm diameter GF/F filters. The PON and  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment were determined using a PDZ Europa 20/20 gas chromatograph – mass spectrometer. The N transport ( $\rho$ ,  $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  day $^{-1}$ ) was calculated according to Dugdale & Wilkerson (1986) and normalized to cell abundance.

Samples for SEM imaging were prepared by filtering 3 mL of culture on 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size polycarbonate filters (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). Filters were dried at 60  $^\circ\text{C}$  for 16 h. Thereafter, pieces of the filters were sputter-coated with gold-palladium and imaged with a ZEISS Ultra 55 Field Emission SEM (Carl Zeiss Microscopy, LLC, Peabody, MA, USA).

### Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) in R v.2.6.2 (<http://www.r-project.org>). Significant differences in parameters across treatments (at a given  $P$  value), are reported on graphics and tables as different letters unless indicated otherwise. Same letter indicates nonsignificant difference at the given  $P$  value.

### Results

To analyze the effect of  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels and N sources on the physiology of *E. huxleyi* we grew cells under four different culture conditions: low  $p\text{CO}_2$  and a mix of  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{LCO}_2 \text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$ ), low  $p\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  as sole source of N ( $\text{LCO}_2 \text{NO}_3^-$ ), high  $p\text{CO}_2$  and

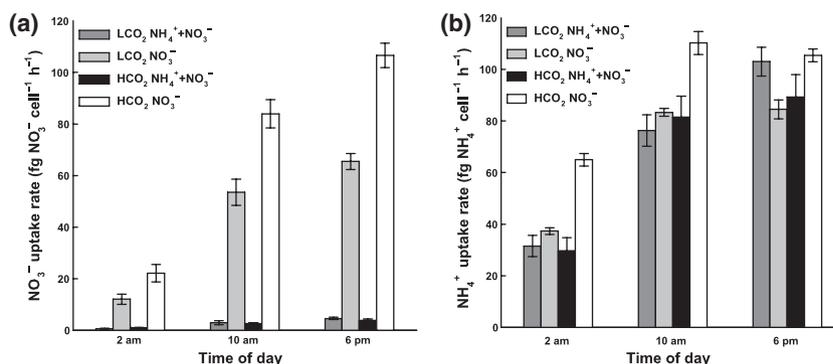
$\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{HCO}_2 \text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$ ) and high  $p\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{HCO}_2 \text{NO}_3^-$ ). First we monitored the water chemistry parameters in the cultures. pH and  $p\text{CO}_2$  exhibited dynamic diurnal variations, with  $p\text{CO}_2$  values increasing at night and decreasing during the light phase, while pH followed the opposite pattern (Fig. S1).  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels in the culture vessels were lower than our aimed targets, averaging 240  $\pm$  30 ppm and 580  $\pm$  40 ppm (mean  $\pm$  SE) in the middle of the dark phase for the cultures bubbled with 400 and 1000 ppm  $\text{CO}_2$ , respectively. These values decreased to 190  $\pm$  10 ppm and 340  $\pm$  20 ppm (mean  $\pm$  SE) toward the end of the light phase indicating that the cultures were actively depleting  $\text{CO}_2$  through photosynthesis. Regardless of N treatment,  $\text{HCO}_2$  reduced pH by 0.21 units on average compared to  $\text{LCO}_2$  (Table 1). pH was not affected by the presence of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . Under  $\text{LCO}_2$ , DIC, bicarbonate ion concentration [ $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ], and  $p\text{CO}_2$  were similar between  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cultures, but [ $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ], TA, and calcite saturation state ( $\Omega$  calcite) were higher in the  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  culture (Table 1). Under  $\text{HCO}_2$ ,  $p\text{CO}_2$ , [ $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ] and DIC were higher relative to  $\text{LCO}_2$  for both N treatments, but this offset was greater in the  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  culture (Table 1). At the same time, [ $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ] and  $\Omega$  calcite were lower under  $\text{HCO}_2$  relative to  $\text{LCO}_2$ , and again, this offset was greater for the  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  culture (Table 1). For both  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cultures, TA was higher under  $\text{HCO}_2$  relative to  $\text{LCO}_2$  by an average of 4%.

Total N concentration was provided at 200  $\mu\text{M}$  in the cultures to obtain sufficient biomass and to insure that N was not limiting. In  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration used was 100  $\mu\text{M}$ . To test the potential toxic effect of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , we assessed the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  toxicity threshold for our strain of *E. huxleyi* by measuring growth rates and maximum PSII efficiency through a range of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations. *E. huxleyi* growth rates and maximum PSII efficiency were not affected along the range 50–500  $\mu\text{M}$  (Fig. S2, Table S1). The  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was shown to become toxic to *E. huxleyi* at concentrations of 1 mM and above. During *E. huxleyi* culturing for 214 to 291 generations (Table 2), excess nutrients always remained in the media. Total N and phosphate uptake, determined by mass-balance, were similar across treatments averaging 67.8  $\mu\text{M}$  per day and 5.4  $\mu\text{M}$  per day, respectively (Fig. S3), however, instant  $\text{NO}_3^-$  uptake rates normalized to cell number indicated that  $\text{HCO}_2 \text{NO}_3^-$  cultures assimilated more  $\text{NO}_3^-$  than  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{NO}_3^-$  cultures (Fig. 1a). Under both  $\text{CO}_2$  treatments, most of the N was assimilated during the light phase with only 14.3%  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and 9.8%  $\text{NO}_3^-$  assimilated during the night for  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cultures, respectively (Fig. 1). The presence of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  almost completely inhibited  $\text{NO}_3^-$  assimilation, with only 3.6% of the daily N

**Table 2** Effect of CO<sub>2</sub> levels and N source in *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures

Treatment	LCO <sub>2</sub> NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> + NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	LCO <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	HCO <sub>2</sub> NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> + NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	HCO <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>
Growth rate (day <sup>-1</sup> )	1.26 (a) ± 0.03	0.93 (b) ± 0.02	1.21 (a) ± 0.02	1.18 (a) ± 0.02
Days in culture	160	160	155	155
Generations	291	214	270	264
Cell volume (µm <sup>3</sup> )	67.0 (a) ± 1.6	54.5 (b) ± 1.7	55.8 (b) ± 1.8	66.3 (a) ± 1.1
POC (fg C µm <sup>-3</sup> )	250.7 (a,b) ± 15	208.7 (a,b) ± 3.6	227.1 (a) ± 8.7	213.0 (b) ± 5.9
PIC (fg C µm <sup>-3</sup> )	104.0 (a,b) ± 3.6	171.3 (c) ± 6.3	92.9 (a) ± 4.3	135.3 (b) ± 5.0
PON (fg N µm <sup>-3</sup> )	30.7 (a) ± 1.7	26.6 (a) ± 0.6	28.7 (a) ± 1.1	26.4 (a) ± 0.7
PIC/POC	0.42 (a) ± 0.02	0.82 (b) ± 0.02	0.41 (a) ± 0.01	0.64 (c) ± 0.02
POC/PON	9.50 (a) ± 0.1	9.15 (a) ± 0.2	9.26 (a) ± 0.4	9.4 (a) ± 0.1
TPC/PON	13.5 (a,c) ± 0.2	16.6 (b) ± 0.3	13.0 (a) ± 0.6	15.4 (b,c) ± 0.1

Data are shown for the four cultures in each growing conditions. Low CO<sub>2</sub> (LCO<sub>2</sub>) and high CO<sub>2</sub> (HCO<sub>2</sub>) with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> as N source. Samples were taken 14 h into the light period. Except for days in culture and generations, data are given as means ± SE for at least four replicates taken every third day for each culture condition. Letters in parentheses indicate significant differences ( $P < 0.01$ ) among treatment types using analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey's *post hoc* test. POC, particulate organic carbon; PIC, particulate inorganic carbon; PON, particulate organic nitrogen; TPC, total particulate carbon. Ratios are given as molar ratio.



**Fig. 1** Nitrogen assimilation rates of *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (a) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (b) assimilation rates were determined using K<sup>15</sup>NO<sub>3</sub> and <sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub>Cl stable isotope tracers, respectively. Measurements were made 4 and 12 h into the light phase (10 am and 6 pm, respectively) and 4 h into the dark phase (2 am) for each growth condition. LCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (dark gray bars), LCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (light gray bars), HCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (black bars), HCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (white bars). Data are mean ± SE of three samples taken every third day for each culture condition.

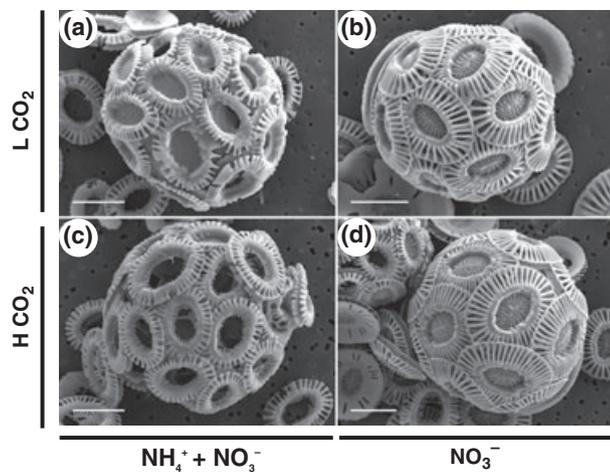
uptake sustained by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures (Fig. 1a), while NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> did not prevent NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> assimilation at both CO<sub>2</sub> levels (Fig. 1b).

Scanning electron microscopy images revealed incomplete and hollow coccoliths for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures compared to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures. In contrast, differences in the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> levels had no obvious effect on coccolith morphology (Fig. 2 and Fig. S4).

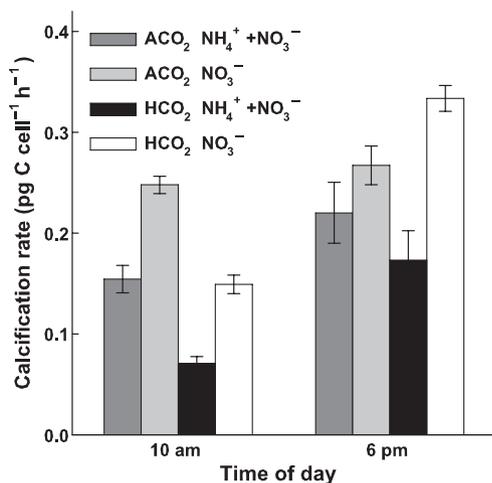
<sup>14</sup>C assimilation rates showed that calcification was only observed during the light phase, with rates increasing as the light period progressed (Fig. 3). At 10 am (4 h into the light phase), NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures had lower calcification rates than NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures by 1.6- and 2.1-fold ( $P < 0.01$ ), in LCO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively (Fig. 3). This trend was also apparent at 6 pm (12 h into

the light phase), where NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures calcified at 1.2 and 1.9 times slower rates than NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures, under LCO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. Changes in calcification rates were not significant at LCO<sub>2</sub>, but were significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) under HCO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3).

PIC contents per cell volume at the end of the photoperiod (2 h before dark phase) were lower in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures compared to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures by 1.6 and 1.5-fold ( $P < 0.01$ ) in LCO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively (Table 2). PIC content per cell volume also decreased under HCO<sub>2</sub>, but the effect was smaller (1.1 and 1.3-fold compared to LCO<sub>2</sub>, in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures, respectively; these changes were not significant for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures, but significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures; Table 2). No effect of CO<sub>2</sub>

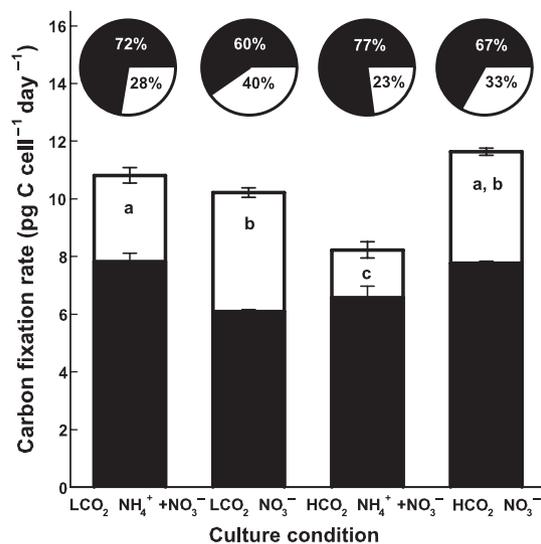


**Fig. 2** Effects of N source and  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels on coccolithophore morphology. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of *Emiliana huxleyi* sampled 14 h into the light period. Cultures were grown at  $\text{LCO}_2$  with  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  (a) or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (b) as N source, and  $\text{HCO}_2$  with  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  (c) or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (d) as N source. Scale bar 2  $\mu\text{m}$ .



**Fig. 3** Calcification rates of *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures. Measurements were determined using radio-labeled  $\text{H}^{14}\text{CO}_3^-$ , 4 and 12 h into the photoperiod (10 am and 6 pm, respectively) for each growth condition.  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  (dark gray bars),  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$  (light gray bars),  $\text{HCO}_2 \text{ NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  (black bars),  $\text{HCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$  (white bars). Data are mean  $\pm$  SE of three samples taken every third day for each culture condition.

was observed on the POC content per cell volume for both  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cultures. The presence of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , however, increased POC content per cell volume by 20% and 7% for  $\text{LCO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_2$  cultures, respectively. The effect of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  on POC content per cell volume was not significant in  $\text{LCO}_2$ , but was significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) in  $\text{HCO}_2$  (Table 2). As a result, PIC/POC



**Fig. 4** Daily carbon fixation and allocation of *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures. Daily calcification rates (white) and primary production (black) were determined by integrating the measurements at 4 and 12 h into the photoperiod (10 am and 6 pm, respectively, from Fig. S5) across the light period for each growth condition:  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HCO}_2 \text{ NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{HCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$ . Data are mean  $\pm$  SE of three samples taken every third day for each culture condition. Letters indicate significant differences ( $P < 0.01$ ) for calcification rates among treatment types using analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tukey's *post hoc* test. Pie chart values are given as percentages.

ratios were lower by a factor of 2.0 and 1.6 ( $P < 0.01$ ) in  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  cultures compared to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cultures, at  $\text{LCO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_2$ , respectively (Table 2). Finally, PON content per cell volume and POC/PON ratios were similar across all four treatments averaging 28  $\text{fg N } \mu\text{m}^{-3}$  and 9.3, respectively (Table 2). We observed a significant interaction between  $p\text{CO}_2$  and N source on PIC content per cell volume and the PIC/POC ratio, indicating that  $p\text{CO}_2$  and N source have a synergistic effect on *E. huxleyi* carbon partitioning (Table S2).

*E. huxleyi* growth rates were similar under all conditions, ranging between 1.18 and 1.26  $\text{day}^{-1}$ , except for  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$  cells, which grew significantly slower ( $P < 0.01$ ) by 30% (Table 2). To investigate carbon allocation, we integrated total carbon fixation per cell across the day (from Fig. S5). Primary production for  $\text{LCO}_2 \text{ NO}_3^-$  cultures was the lowest of the four conditions, accounting for 60% of the total daily fixed carbon compared to 67–77% in the other three growth conditions (Fig. 4). It is also evident that calcification is a greater carbon sink in the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cultures, representing 40% and 33% of the daily fixed carbon under  $\text{LCO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_2$ , respectively, compared to  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  cultures where calcification contributed 28% and 23% of

the daily fixed carbon at LCO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively (Fig. 4). Growth rates were positively correlated with primary production ( $R^2 = 0.57$ ) and negatively correlated with calcification ( $R^2 = 0.42$ ) across all treatments (Fig. 5, Fig. S6).

We observed diel variation in cell volume that increased throughout the light phase and decreased during the night (Fig. S7). At the end of the photoperiod, under LCO<sub>2</sub>, cells were 23% larger in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $P < 0.01$ ) than in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Table 2, Fig. S7). The opposite pattern was observed under HCO<sub>2</sub>, where cells were 16% smaller in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $P < 0.01$ ) than in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Table 2 and Fig. S7). HCO<sub>2</sub> caused a cell size decrease by 17% ( $P < 0.01$ ) and a cell size increase by 22% ( $P < 0.01$ ) compared to LCO<sub>2</sub> for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> cultures, respectively (Table 2, Fig. S7).

## Discussion

Recently, Barcelos e Ramos *et al.* (2010) reported that only 26 h are required to assure coccolithophore acclimation to their environment. After more than 200 generations, it is clear that our cultures were acclimated to the growing conditions. A generalization for multi-generational experiments is that after 1000 generations enough genetic variability has occurred so that the culture can be considered as a new population (Collins *et al.*, 2006). Although our experiment was conducted

for 1/5 of the generations cited above, it is possible that our cultures had evolved toward adaptation to their environment (Collins, 2010; Müller *et al.*, 2010).

In our culturing conditions, excess nutrients always remained in the growing vessels, ensuring that N and PO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were never limiting. Daily N uptake rates and cellular PON contents in this study are in good agreement with those previously reported for *E. huxleyi* (Varela & Harrison, 1999; Leonardos & Geider, 2005). Our slightly higher values likely reflect the higher growth rate of our cultures. Our *E. huxleyi* cultures also showed a similar deviation from the Redfield C/N ratio previously reported for that species (Leonardos & Geider, 2005). Inhibition of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake by NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is well documented for phytoplankton species (Eppley *et al.*, 1969; Harrison *et al.*, 1996) and in *E. huxleyi* it is reported that 0.2 μM NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> halves NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake and 2.2 μM of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> completely inhibits NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake (Varela & Harrison, 1999). Our study is in good agreement with these previous reports and it is possible that the 3.6% NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-supported N assimilation, reported here, when both N sources were supplied was within analytical error. Only small proportions of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> were assimilated during the dark phase while the main part of N assimilation took place during the light phase, when energy and reducing power necessary for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> incorporation, are in high supply via photosynthesis.

A recent study reported increases in both calcification rate and primary production when *E. huxleyi* (strain NZEH) was grown under elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> (Iglesias-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2008a). Conversely, an earlier study on the same species came to a fundamentally opposite conclusion demonstrating reduced calcification in *E. huxleyi* (strain PML B92/11) exposed to elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> (Riebesell *et al.*, 2000). Despite the active debate that ensued (Iglesias-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2008b; Riebesell *et al.*, 2008), the cause for this discrepancy is still unclear. Divergent physiologic responses to ocean acidification have also been proposed to be due to genetic differences among strains of *E. huxleyi* (Langer *et al.*, 2009; Beaufort *et al.*, 2011). In our study, night calcification was negligible and significant rates of calcification were only observed during the light phase, with calcification rate increasing as the light period progressed, reinforcing previously shown coupling of photosynthetic end-products production with calcification intensity (Paasche, 1964, 1966, 2002). We observed a reduction in calcification rate and cellular PIC content at elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub>. These results are consistent with another study using the same *E. huxleyi* strain (CCMP 371) that demonstrated reduction in the cellular PIC with increasing *p*CO<sub>2</sub> levels or with increasing light intensity (Feng *et al.*, 2008).

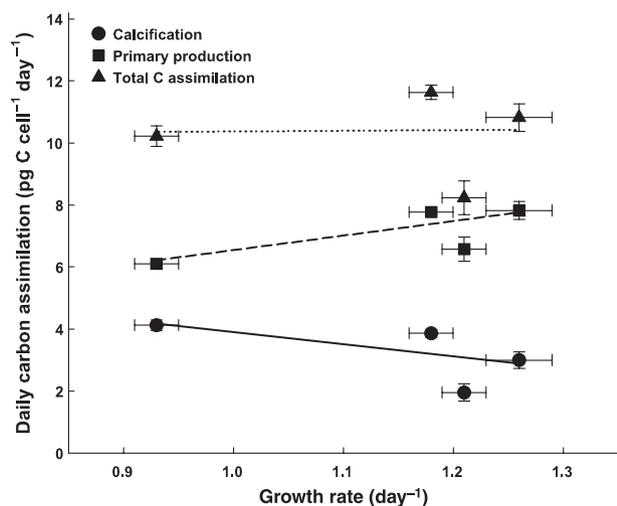


Fig. 5 Correlation between growth rates and carbon fixation. Growth rates and daily carbon fixation rates for the four treatments were derived from Table 2 and Fig. 4. Calcification rates (circles), primary production (squares) and total carbon assimilation (triangles). Corresponding linear regression equations and  $R^2$  are:  $y = -4.3x + 8.15$ ,  $R^2 = 0.42$ ;  $y = 4.4x + 2$ ,  $R^2 = 0.57$  and  $y = -0.16x + 10.4$ ,  $R^2 = 0.000027$ , respectively.

More interestingly, we observed that the N source had a stronger effect on calcification than  $p\text{CO}_2$ . Our study demonstrates that calcification was enhanced under  $\text{NO}_3^-$  assimilation and reduced under  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation. Given that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  assimilation requires more reducing power relative to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation, it is possible that the observed effect on calcification is linked to a change in the redox status of the cell, which might be exacerbated under low  $\text{CO}_2$  when the primary carbon reduction (Calvin–Benson) cycle is a more restricted sink for reducing power. Another possible explanation would involve the excess protons generated during  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation. The assimilation of 3 moles of N as  $\text{NO}_3^-$  produces 2 moles of excess  $\text{OH}^-$  ions, whereas assimilation of 3 moles of N as  $\text{NH}_4^+$  produces 4 moles of excess  $\text{H}^+$  (Raven, 1986). To maintain intracellular pH homeostasis, excess  $\text{H}^+$  needs to be moved out of the cell across the cell membrane. The  $\text{H}^+$  movement could be facilitated by the high membrane permeability for  $\text{H}^+$  recently demonstrated in *E. huxleyi* (Suffrian *et al.*, 2011; Taylor *et al.*, 2011). Nevertheless, it is possible that the excess  $\text{H}^+$  generated by  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation would reduce the internal conversion of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  to  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  and  $\text{H}^+$ , thereby restricting the availability of  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  for  $\text{CaCO}_3$  production. Conversely, the  $\text{OH}^-$  generated during  $\text{NO}_3^-$  assimilation could combine with the  $\text{H}^+$  generated during  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  dissociation to  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ , thus promoting calcification.

Previous studies have indicated that *E. huxleyi* possesses only NADH specific  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reductase, a characteristic shared with the red algae lineage in comparison with the NAD(P)H bi-specific  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reductases of green algae and higher plants (Iwamoto & Shiraiwa, 2003). The  $K_m$  of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reductase in *E. huxleyi* for NADH was found to be high (23–80  $\mu\text{M}$ ), similar to the one found in red algae, in comparison with the lower  $K_m$  for NADH (3–5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) found in higher plants and diatoms (Iwamoto & Shiraiwa, 2003). The apparent poor  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reductase affinity for its substrates in *E. huxleyi* was proposed to be compensated by high  $\text{NO}_3^-$  transporter affinities (Iwamoto & Shiraiwa, 2003). Although this can not be excluded, searches of *E. huxleyi* CCMP 1516's genome indicate 24 predicted  $\text{NH}_4^+$  transporter genes (12 supported by EST), but only eight predicted  $\text{NO}_3^-$  transporter genes, supporting previous studies (Muggli & Harrison, 1996) suggesting that these cells may be more greatly poised to transport  $\text{NH}_4^+$  than  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in comparison with other phytoplankton species.

Under low  $\text{CO}_2$ , for the same amount of N consumed by the cells, the faster growth rate supported by  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation may be due to the lower reducing power required for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  assimilation in comparison to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  assimilation. This advantage is offset by increased  $\text{CO}_2$  availability, possibly because the cells do not need to

invest as many resources for carbon acquisition and assimilation (e.g., carbon concentration mechanisms). Although the relationship slopes were quite small, the cultures growth rates were positively correlated to primary production, but negatively correlated to calcification, that is, the more the cells calcify the less primary production they can achieve and the slower they grow. Although speculative, it has been proposed that the coccolithophore  $\text{CaCO}_3$  exoskeleton might confer a protective advantage (Young, 1994; Irie *et al.*, 2010) and the relation above might reflect a balance between protection and growth speed.

This study demonstrates that N source and  $p\text{CO}_2$  synergistically impact cell volume. It is important to note that cell sizes were determined including the coccolith layers, but since  $\text{NO}_3^-$  cells calcified more than  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  cells, the larger cell size observed for  $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$  cells under L $\text{CO}_2$  was unlikely to be due to a thicker coccolith layer, but rather resulted from an effect of N source. These results emphasize the need to assess various environmental parameters in combination, to develop accurate predictions of phytoplankton responses to ocean acidification. A recent study indicated that elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  reduces iron bioavailability, thus increasing iron stress for phytoplankton (Shi *et al.*, 2010). Feng *et al.* (2009) also reported change in community structure in a North Atlantic spring bloom with increased organic carbon fixation rate and weakened calcification in response to elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  and temperature. More studies assessing the synergistic effect of various factors such as,  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels and phosphate availability will be needed in the future to complement our current knowledge (Leonardos & Geider, 2005; De Bodt *et al.*, 2010; Gao & Zheng, 2010) and help building our understanding of the full extent of direct and indirect consequences of ocean acidification on phytoplankton.

In a recent report, Beman *et al.* (2011) estimated that at least 1% and up to 25% of global marine primary production would be supported by regenerated  $\text{NH}_4^+$  rather than  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the future acidified ocean. Assuming that  $\text{CO}_2/\text{N}$  source-related responses of the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi* as described in this study (6% reduction in calcification due to elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  alone and 53% reduction for combined elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -supported regenerated production) are representative for overall *E. huxleyi* species biogenic calcification, and using the estimates of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  supported primary production cited above, the potential impact of combined elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  and shifts from  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -supported new production to  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -supported regenerated production can be estimated to reduce calcification by 7–18% per year compared to a reduction of 6% per year resulting from elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  alone.

The overall effect of ocean acidification, rising sea surface temperatures and anthropogenic N emissions is predicted to increase the oceanic  $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NO}_3^-$  ratio, and that under such conditions, *E. huxleyi* has been proposed to dominate phytoplankton communities (Eppley *et al.*, 1969; Feng *et al.*, 2009). If the findings presented above are also applicable to cells grown under nutrient-limiting conditions, our study would suggest that compared to increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  alone, a greater reduction of coccolithophores calcification, thus a greater disruption of the organic carbon pump, could be expected in response to the combined effect of increased  $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NO}_3^-$  ratio and  $\text{CO}_2$  level in the future acidified ocean. In this study, experiments were conducted with a single species and to generate the sufficient biomass necessary for the determination of the different parameters, the nutrient concentrations were maintained at much higher levels than usually found in the open ocean. Thus, to extend our findings to the global carbon cycle our results should be further assessed with other coccolithophore species and under lower and more realistic oceanic nutrient concentrations.

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## Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

**Figure S1.** Steady-state concentrations of nutrients in cultures and total nitrogen and phosphorous consumed. Nutrients were measured in the four reactors with steady-state densities of *Emiliana huxleyi* at 500 000 cell mL<sup>-1</sup>. Nitrogen (N) and phosphate consumed were derived as the difference between the steady-state concentrations in the cyclostats and that in the inflow-media. Low CO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (LCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, dark gray bars), low CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (LCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, light gray bars), high CO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (HCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, black bars) and high CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (HCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, white bars). Data are mean ± SE of at least four samples taken every third day for each culture condition.

**Figure S2.** pH and pCO<sub>2</sub> diurnal variation in *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures.

**Figure S3.** Growth curves of *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures on different NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations.

**Figure S4.** Effects of N source and pCO<sub>2</sub> levels on coccolithophore morphology. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of *Emiliana huxleyi* sampled 14 h into the light period. Cultures were grown at low CO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (a) or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (b) as N source, and high CO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (c) or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (d) as N source. Scale bar in overview images 10 μm, scale bar in detail images 2 μm.

**Figure S5.** Instant calcification rates and primary production rates of *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures. Measurements were determined using radio-labeled H<sup>14</sup>CO<sub>3</sub>, 4 and 12 hours into the photoperiod (10 am and 6 pm, a and b respectively) for each growth condition. Low CO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (LCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), low CO<sub>2</sub> with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (LCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), high CO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (HCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), high CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (HCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>). Bar chart data are given as mean ± SE for at least three replicates taken every third day for each culture condition. Pie charts are given as percentages.

**Figure S6.** Correlation between growth rates and particulate carbon content. PIC, POC and TPC were determined at 14 h into the light phase (2 h before the dark phase). PIC (blue circles), POC (red squares) and TPC (green triangles). Corresponding linear regression equations and R<sup>2</sup> are:  $y = -5.2x + 13.6$ , R<sup>2</sup> = 0.25;  $y = 11.1x + 1$ , R<sup>2</sup> = 0.76 and  $y = 5.89x + 14.6$ , R<sup>2</sup> = 0.1625, respectively.

**Figure S7.** *Emiliana huxleyi* cell volume for each growth condition. Cell volumes were determined by flow cytometry, four hours after the dark onset (2 am) and four, eight, 12 and 14 h after the light onset (10 am, 2 pm, 6 pm, 8 pm, respectively) for each growth condition. LCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (dark gray bars), LCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (light gray bars), HCO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (black bars), HCO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (white bars). Data are mean ± SE, the number of samples (*n*, taken every third day for each culture condition) is 6, 2, 7, 2, 6 at 2 am, 10 am, 2 pm, 6 pm and 8 pm, respectively.

**Table S1.** Growth rates and maximum PSII photosynthetic efficiencies of *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures on different NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations.

**Table S2.** pCO<sub>2</sub> and N source interaction.

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